

Original Article

# The Effect of Groundwater Recharge and Abstraction on Groundwater Quality in Nairobi Aquifer System

Rael Mong'ina Nyakundi<sup>1</sup>, Maurice Nyadawa<sup>2</sup>, John Mwangi<sup>3</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Student, Department of Civil Engineering, Pan African University-Institute for Basic Sciences, Technology and Innovation/Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology, Nairobi, Kenya.

<sup>2</sup>Associate Professor, Department of Civil Engineering and Construction Management, Jaramogi Oginga Odinga University of Science and Technology, Bondo, Kenya.

<sup>3</sup>Senior Lecturer, Department of Civil, Construction and Environmental Engineering, Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology, Nairobi, Kenya.

<sup>1</sup>rachaelmongina@gmail.com, <sup>2</sup>monyadawa@yahoo.com, <sup>3</sup>joymwa86@yahoo.com

**Abstract** — Using standard procedures, the study analysed water samples from 100 boreholes from Nairobi Aquifer System (NAS) for selected water quality parameters. Data from eleven monitoring boreholes from 2013-2019 was obtained from Water Resources Authority (WRA). The parameters were weighted, and their concentrations were used to develop Water Quality Indices (WQI). Abstraction data was obtained from WRA while recharge was estimated using SWAT Model. A Multiple regression model for WQI, abstraction and recharge variables was developed, and maps were created. Results showed the highest WQI of 0.4001 when recharge was 666,980.16 m<sup>3</sup>/year and abstraction 54,963,200 m<sup>3</sup>/year, and lowest WQI of 0.2861 when recharge stood at 346,483.20 m<sup>3</sup>/year and abstraction 41,586,600 m<sup>3</sup>/year. A strong correlation between abstraction, recharge, and WQI of R<sup>2</sup> 0.86 was observed. Areas with high recharge and low abstraction exhibited a low WQI of 0.2, while areas with high abstraction rates and low recharge showed relatively high WQI of 0.6. Therefore, it was concluded that water quality improved with decreased abstraction and recharge and deteriorated with increased abstraction and reduced recharge. It was recommended that abstraction be regulated in line with recharge rates and recharge be improved to maintain high water quality suitable for human consumption.

**Keywords** — Abstraction, Aquifer, Groundwater levels, Recharge and Water Quality Index.

The African Union Commission supported this work through the scholarship that supported the research work, and we are very grateful.

## I. INTRODUCTION

Water quality is an important characteristic in determining the use into which the water will be put [10]. While groundwater generally has better quality than surface water [19], it contains ions whose concentrations should be kept within the set portability standards. This has influenced various studies on groundwater quality parameters such as TDS, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>, Cl<sup>-</sup>, SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>, Ca<sup>2+</sup>, Mg<sup>2+</sup>, total hardness, Zn, Hg, C r, Cd, Ni, and Pb [17], [11], [14].

Recharge plays a role in groundwater quality whereby dilution of ionic concentrations through recharge increases three times as recharge increases and concentration of total dissolved solids decreases [24]. Parameters such as electrical conductivity [13] and Fluoride [8] decrease with an increase in recharge, improving groundwater quality. While recharge through runoff can cause contamination considering some parameters [4], the average concentration of water quality parameters reduces after the flood by dilution process [15]. Recharge is related to land use/ land cover changes, and the concentration of water quality parameters decreases with an increase in recharge [3], [9]. Groundwater quality shows an increasing trend of desalination of sulfate, iron, manganese content, organic and nitrogenous compounds [25].

Groundwater abstraction deteriorates groundwater quality by increasing parameters such as sulfate and chlorides due to mineral oxidation [7]. Long-term evolution of water quality comes up because of overdraft [22]. Over-exploitation leads to declining groundwater levels, which negatively impacts groundwater quality by increasing electrical conductivity [23]. Groundwater quality is influenced by geological characteristics, which show spatial-temporal variations in different parameters [18]. Industrialization and urbanization affect groundwater quality negatively [1]. Groundwater pollution in urban areas is high compared to other areas [12].



Despite the findings of these researches, the extent to which recharge and abstraction affect the groundwater quality has not been focused on to inform water resources management and regulation in the relevant areas.

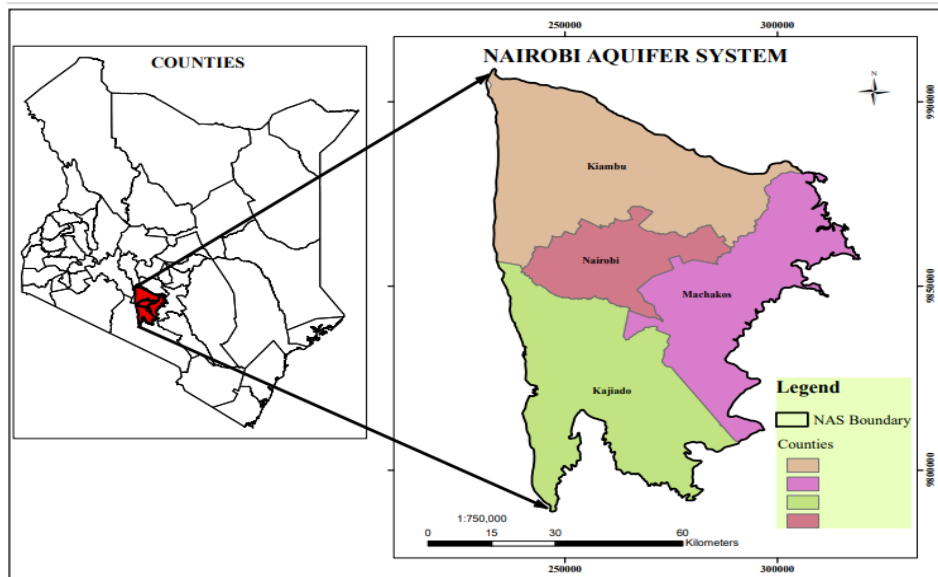
Nairobi Aquifer System, the focus of this study, is an aquifer underlying a city with rapid urbanization, industrialization, and a high population growth rate [6]. Parts of the study area, especially the city, do not have surface water supply sources as most rivers are highly polluted while the other parts are arid and semi-arid (ASAL). The area, therefore, depends on inter-basin water transfer from Murang'a in the Tana basin. To complement these water sources, several boreholes have been sunk within the NAS to provide additional water supply, which has led to a decline in groundwater levels [27]. Studies in NAS have ranked groundwater as good as per WQI [19], with most parameters being within the WHO standards except Nickel, lead, fluoride, and physical parameters such as PH and electrical conductivity in some areas [21], [29], and [17]. However, groundwater quality seems to deteriorate in some areas with time which makes it necessary to study the effect of abstraction and recharge on water quality. In 1999 abstraction rate was 15,116,742 m<sup>3</sup>/year with a population of about 2 million, while in 2019 abstraction rate was

72,379,531 m<sup>3</sup>/year with a population of about 6 million [28]. The rate of abstraction in Nairobi is increasing, fueled by population increase and industrialization as seen in the decline of groundwater levels [5] and reduced recharge rate due to increasing urbanization and the effect of climate change that is causing rainfall fluctuations.

## II. MATERIALS AND METHODS

### A. Study Area

NAS covers an area of approximately 6,500 km<sup>2</sup> and underlies much of the Nairobi metropolitan area. It is a complex, multilayered volcanic / volcano-classic aquifer system, recharged along the eastern edge of the Rift Valley with groundwater moving from the North-west towards the east. It is unconfined in the recharge zone, becoming confined with the eastward progression. The principal aquifer unit, the Upper Athi series, is entirely confined, with depths ranging from 120m to 300m below ground level. Aquifer characteristics range from 0.1 to 160 m<sup>2</sup>/d for transmissivity from 0.01 to 1.3 m/d for hydraulic conductivity and from  $1.2 \times 10^{-4}$  to  $4.2 \times 10^{-1}$  for storage coefficient [16].



**Fig. 1 Map of Nairobi Aquifer System (NAS)**

NAS lies within the Athi basin, one of Kenya's five river basins (Water Resources Authority, 2018), and encompasses the counties of Nairobi, Kiambu, Kajiado, and Machakos (Fig. 1). It lies between latitudes 0°37' 58" to 1°59' 23"S and longitudes 36°34' 27" to 37°28' 17"E (Oiro, 2018) at an altitude of between 1400m to 2600 m above mean sea level (asl).

The area experiences a subtropical highland climate, with June and July as the coldest months. The area experiences a bimodal rainfall pattern, with the highest rainfall occurring in March-May, and November-December, respectively, with a mean annual rainfall of 1050 mm. Average annual humidity ranges from 60% to 84%, with higher per cent occurring during rainy seasons. Flooding occurs during the wet season, particularly within residential areas and lowland plains [20].

**B. Data Collection**

Secondary groundwater quality data on total hardness, iron, calcium, magnesium fluoride, PH, turbidity, TDS, electrical conductivity, nitrates, and sulfates for eleven monitoring boreholes from 2013-2019 was collected from the Water Resources Authority (WRA). The recharge for the aquifer was estimated based on climatic data such as rainfall, soil type, land use, land cover and terrain variables using the SWAT Model. In contrast, historical daily abstraction rate data from 2013-2019 was collected from WRA. The boreholes under study were located using a Geographical Positioning System (GPS) and mapped using QGIS. Water quality parameters such as total dissolved solids and PH were measured on-site using a portable water quality testing kit. Water samples for physical and chemical analysis were collected in clean 1-litre plastic bottles. The bottles were first washed with a detergent and rinsed with distilled water

and finally with the sample water before taking a sample. All samples were then labelled with a code, source details, date, and sampling time and transported to the laboratory in cool boxes stacked with ice cubes for testing within 24 hours of sampling. NAS has a total of 9196 boreholes. The sample size was calculated using Equation 1.

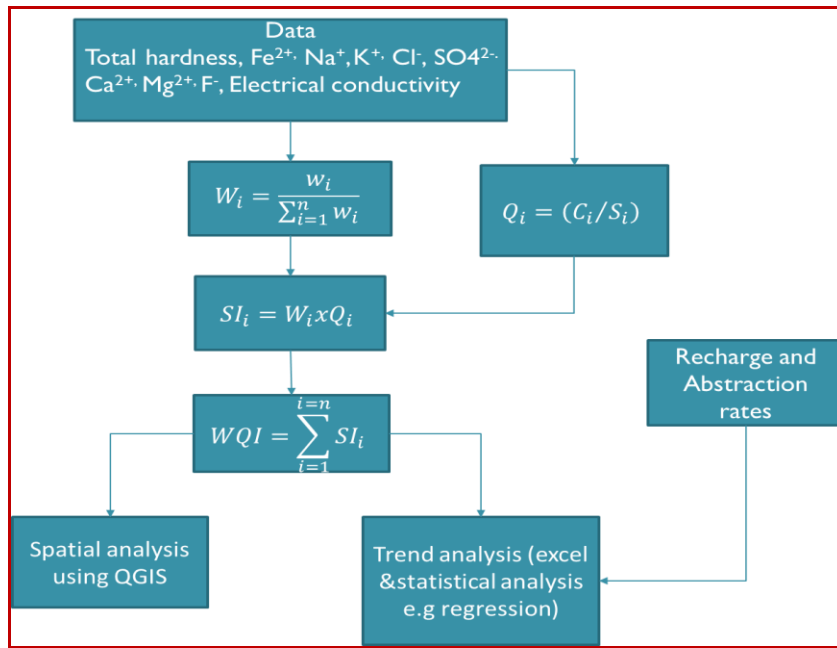
$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e^2)} \tag{1}$$

$$n = \frac{9196}{1 + 9196(0.1^2)}$$

n =98.9 hence approximated to 100 boreholes

Where; n = Sample size, e = error limit (0.1), N = the population size, (Israel, 2009)

**C. Data Analysis**



**Fig. 2 Computational flowchart for water quality index and recharge and abstraction**

**a) Water Quality Index Computation**

The water quality index (WQI) was calculated using the parameter concentration data obtained from WRA (2013-2019) and that obtained from laboratory analysis using the DRASTIC model, which is a mathematical model that indicates the overall water quality as shown in Fig. 2. It is a method of ranking that provides the composite power of individual water quality parameters on the overall quality of water [2].

The same parameters were chosen for all boreholes based on the hydro-chemical approach based on their level of occurrence and prevalence during borehole commissioning

according to WRA data [19] and their indication of the suitability of water for human consumption. The weighting of the parameters was done according to their importance on overall WQ for drinking purposes and their perceived effect and severity on primary human health [26]. A parameter was assigned a weight ranging from 1 showing minimum weight to 5 showing maximum weight as shown in Table 1, where 1 is the lowest value and 5 is the highest. EC was assigned 5 because of its overall indication of water quality; fluoride 4 because of the effect of dental and skeletal fluorosis to humans in high levels and chloride because of weakening of skeletal structure and alkalosis; Calcium, magnesium, and

total hardness 3 because of scaling and resistance to detergents; potassium and sodium 2 because of their contribution to maintaining body water balance; iron 1 because of the staining effect and sulfates because of its taste in water.

**Table 1. Weighting of chemical parameters**

S/No.	Chemical Parameters	WHO Standard (Si)	Weight (wi)
1	Electrical Conductivity(µS/cm)	500	5
2	Magnesium (mg/l)	50	3
3	Calcium (mg/l)	75	3
4	Iron (mg/l)	0.3	1
5	Potassium (mg/l)	50	2
6	Sodium (mg/l)	200	2
7	Sulphate (mg/l)	250	1
8	Total hardness (mg/l)	500	3
9	Flouride (mg/l)	1.5	4
10	Chloride (mg/l)	250	3

Relative weight was calculated using the weighted arithmetic index formula [2].

$$W_i = \frac{w_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n w_i} \quad (2)$$

Where  $W_i$  = Relative weight;  $w_i$ = weight of each parameter;  $n$  = number of parameters

The quality rating scale ( $Q_i$ ) is calculated by;

$$Q_i = (C_i/S_i) \times 100 \quad (3)$$

Where  $C_i$  is the concentration of a parameter for each water sample and  $S_i$  is its relevant standard according to the World Health Organization (WHO) rule.

The subindex of the  $i$ th parameter ( $SI_i$ ) for each parameter was determined using the equation;

$$SI_i = W_i \times Q_i \quad (4)$$

WQI was given by equation5;

$$WQI = \sum_{i=1}^{i=n} SI_i \quad (5)$$

The WQI result obtained classified according to the Water quality grading scale by [19] as shown in Table2

**Table 2. Water Quality Grading Scale**

Ranking	WQI	GRADE
Excellent	<0.2	A
Very good	0.2-0.4	B
Good	0.4-0.6	C
Fairly good	0.6-0.8	D
Suitable	0.8-1.0	E
Unsuitable	>1.0	F

**b) Statistical and spatial Analysis**

Data and trends were analyzed using excel, while statistical analysis was done using a multiple regression model to establish the relationship between recharge, abstraction, groundwater levels, and water quality index. Spatial analysis was done using QGIS to highlight the spatial variation of different parameters to develop maps of the Water Quality Index.

**c) Scenario Analysis**

The effect of abstraction and recharge on WQI in the form of the developed model was applied in extreme conditions such as areas of high recharge and low abstraction and areas of low recharge and high abstraction to test and validate the model and check the best and worst scenarios.

**III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS**

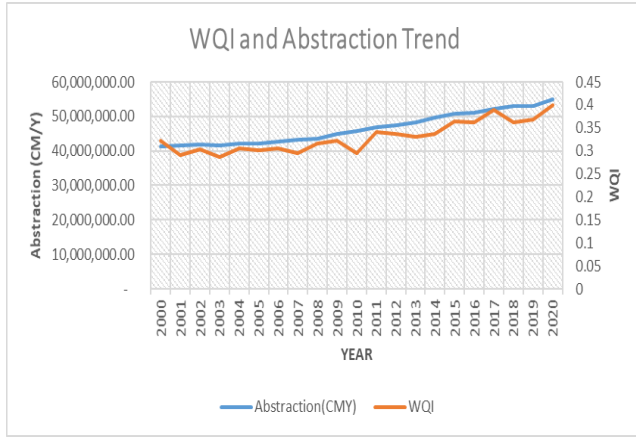
**A. WQI, Abstraction and recharge trend**

Obtained abstraction data, calculated average recharge, and WQI showed in Table 3 were plotted to show their trends over the year and relationships.

**Table 3. Abstraction, Recharge, and WQI in NAS over the years**

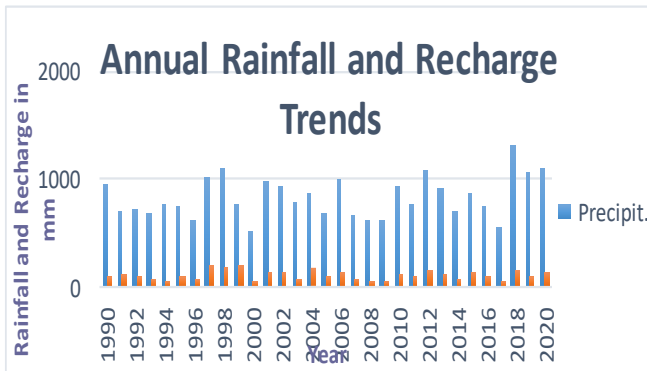
Year	Recharge (CM/Y)	Abstraction (CM/Y)	WQI
2000	211,602.24	41,186,600.00	0.3219028
2001	623,051.04	41,586,600.00	0.2911604
2002	683,685.60	41,886,600.00	0.3033908
2003	346,483.20	41,586,600.00	0.2861268
2004	862,495.68	42,086,600.00	0.3049508
2005	454,759.20	42,186,600.00	0.3016852
2006	704,722.08	42,586,600.00	0.305866
2007	380,512.80	43,156,600.00	0.29453
2008	246,250.56	43,586,600.00	0.315954
2009	236,351.04	44,886,600.00	0.3228388
2010	606,964.32	45,886,600.00	0.2960276
2011	422,585.76	46,886,600.00	0.340457004
2012	764,737.92	47,586,600.00	0.336937292
2013	603,870.72	48,186,600.00	0.330867156
2014	351,432.96	49,586,600.00	0.33771044
2015	690,491.52	50,886,600.00	0.363431891
2016	458,471.52	51,151,100.00	0.361289491
2017	275,330.40	52,163,200.00	0.390251624
2018	752,363.52	52,963,200.00	0.36317
2019	403,405.44	53,163,200.00	0.36803796
2020	666,980.16	54,963,200.00	0.400577904



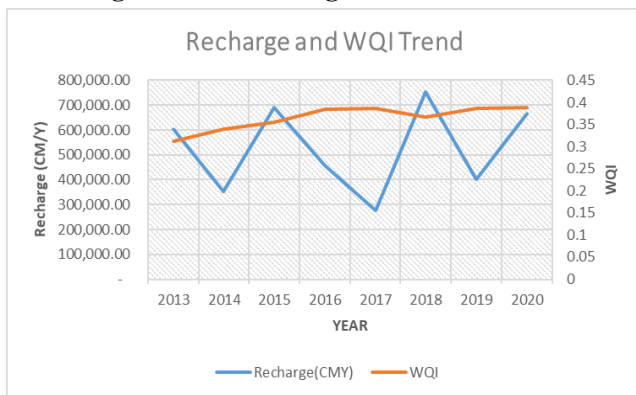


**Fig. 3 WQI and Abstraction Trend**

There is a significant increasing abstraction and WQI trend, as shown in Fig. 3. This is because of the increasing water demand in the area for various purposes. An increase in abstraction amounts increases WQI lowering the water quality. This implies that the groundwater quality has deteriorated from 2013 to 2020. However, there is a WQI dip in the years 2010 and 2018, which can be associated with the increase in recharge in the year as shown in Fig. 4, thus causing a dilution effect in groundwater hence lowering WQI.

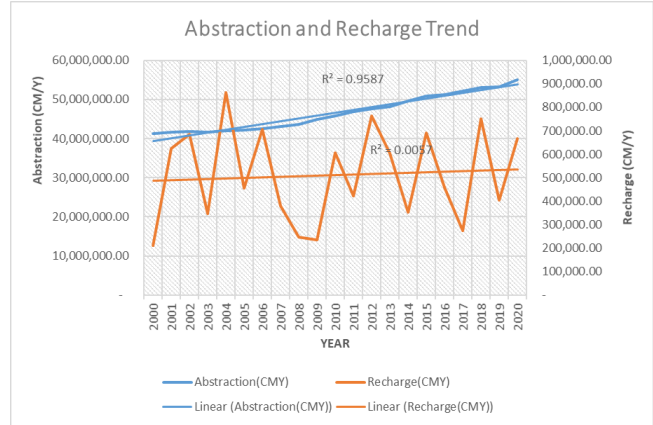


**Fig. 4 Annual recharge and rainfall trend**



**Fig. 5 Recharge and WQI**

There is an increase in WQI from 0.33 in 2013 to 0.40 in 2019, as shown in Fig. 5. With the decrease in recharge, the WQI seems to increase as in the case of 2016 and 2017 because of decreased rainfall, meaning an increase in recharge tends to improve the water quality by lowering the water quality index



**Fig. 6 Abstraction and Recharge trend**

Both recharge and abstraction rates showed an increasing trend from 2000 to 2020, as shown in Fig. 6. However, the trend is significant for abstraction as  $R^2$  is 0.9587, which is more than 0.5, while it is not significant for recharge as  $R^2$  is 0.0057. This can be associated with increases in rainfall amounts over the years and a dip in 2017 because of reduced rainfall, as shown in Fig. 4. However, it's not as significant because it's hampered by the increase of urbanization that reduces infiltration.

**B. Multiple Regression Model**

Recharge, Abstraction, and WQI variables for the years 2013 to 2020 were used to develop a multiple regression model using the analysis tool in excel

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 \tag{6}$$

$$WQI = -0.2128 + (1.1763 * 10^{-8} X_1) - (5.6862 * 10^{-8} X_2) \tag{7}$$

Where;

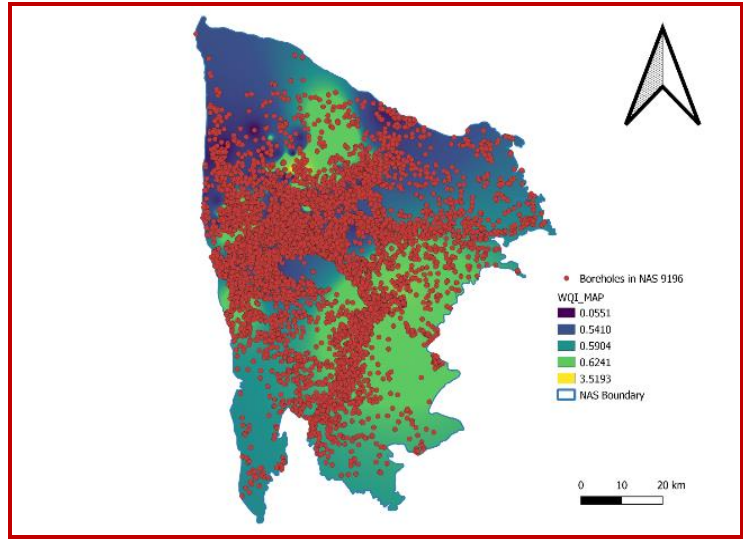
$X_1$  is Abstraction, and  $X_2$  is recharge

Results showed that Recharge and abstraction have a strong impact on WQI as the  $R^2$  was 0.724. Further, the model showed that WQI is directly proportional to abstraction rate, increasing with an increase in abstraction rate while it is inversely proportional to recharge rates as it decreases with increases in recharge and vice versa, as can be seen in Fig. 3 and 5.

Assuming WQI is maintained at 1 with a recharge rate of 666,980.2m<sup>3</sup>/year, the model showed a maximum abstraction of 106,327,112.8m<sup>3</sup>/years permissible after maintaining water quality at an acceptable suitable class.

**C. Spatial Distribution of Water Quality Index**

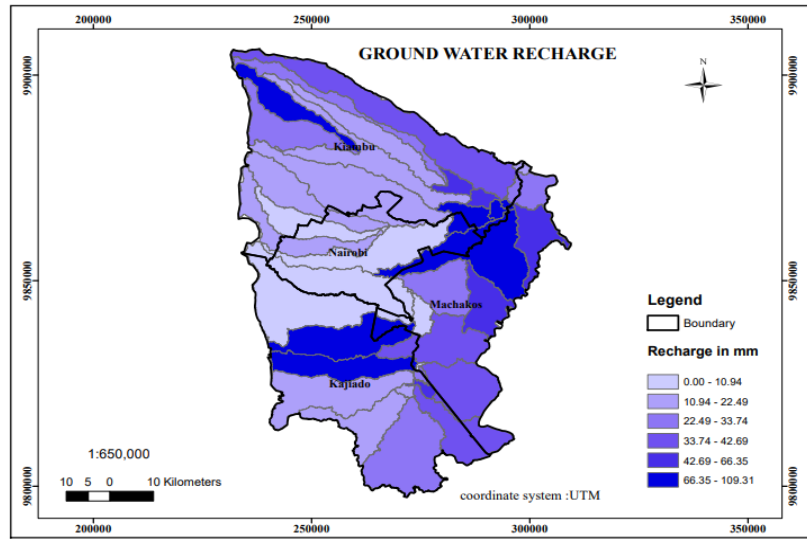
Water quality results for the 100 boreholes sampled and their calculated WQI as shown in Appendix A were mapped to show the spatial distribution of the water quality index in NAS as shown in Fig. 7.



**Fig. 7 WQI and Abstraction Boreholes Map of NAS**

Results showed that most parts of the study area had water suitable for human consumption because the WQI was below 1. However, small parts of the study area had WQI above 1, e.g. south Eastern parts of Kajiado and Machakos, as shown in Fig. 7. This means that the water was classified as unsuitable for human consumption. This can be associated with relatively high abstraction rates in the area because the area is Arid and Semi-arid (ASAL), as shown in Fig. 6. Most people in these areas depend on groundwater as surface water is limited. The inter-basin water transferred from Tana through Nairobi Water and Sewerage Company rarely reaches those areas.

On the other hand, the area also receives low rainfall, which translates to low recharge rates even if abstraction is relatively low in some areas, as shown in Fig. 8. The Northern part of the study area has low WQI. This is because of the high recharge experienced in the area because of high rainfall amounts, as shown in Fig. 8. The area has sufficient surface water making dependence on groundwater relatively low. The WQI in the central area where Nairobi city falls is ranked as good to fairly good (WQI is 0.4-0.6). Even though the area receives a relatively high rainfall amount, its WQI is influenced by high abstraction rates and reduced recharge due to urbanization that affects land cover.



**Fig.8 NAS Recharge map**

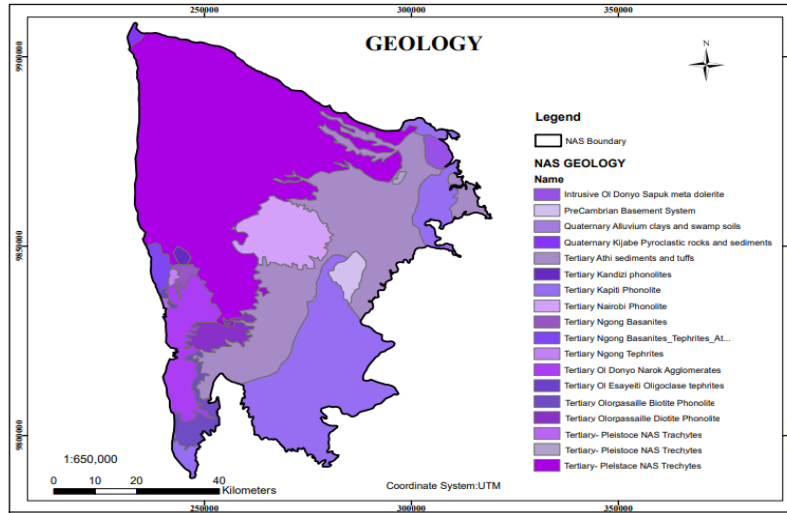


Fig. 9 Map of NAS geology

Comparing the water quality with the geological formation of the area, results showed that areas with Pleistocene trachytes containing calcium, sodium, and potassium, such as the North-Western parts of Ngong hills and Limuru had low WQI, as shown in Fig. 9, which is associated with higher water quality. Areas with phonolites

that contain potash and feldspar, such as the Southeastern parts of Kajiado and Machakos, exhibited high WQI because of high concentration of fluoride as a result of groundwater dissolving the mineral elements contained in the geological formation [29] and [21], which make the water unsuitable for human consumption as shown in Fig. 9.

D. Scenario Analysis

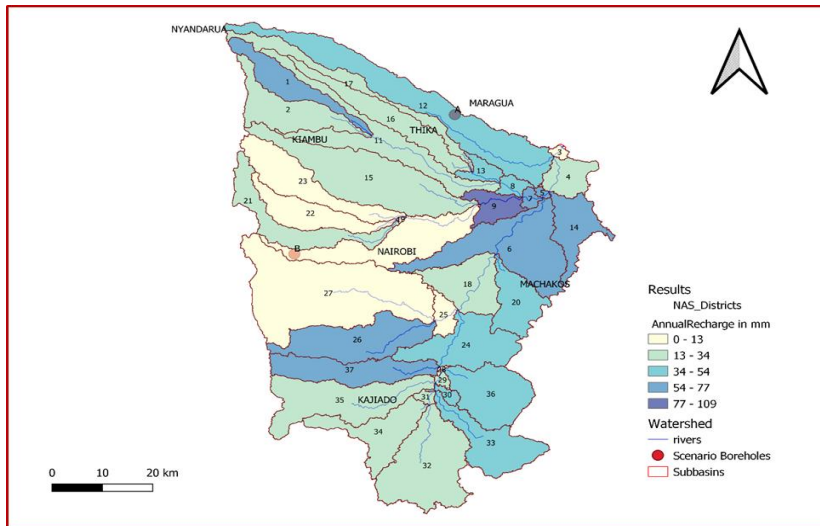
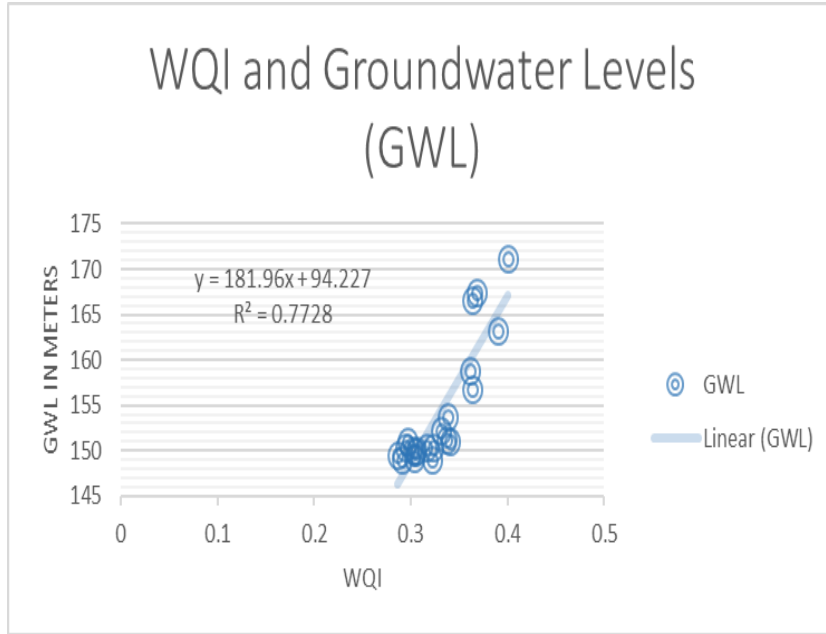


Fig. 10 Scenario analysis map

Considering a borehole located in a high abstraction and low recharge area in Nairobi (Borehole B) another one in higher recharge and low abstraction area (Borehole A) as shown in Fig. 10, the calculated WQI was found to be 0.6 and 0.2, respectively. The WQI of samples from an area with high recharge and low abstraction rate is low because the dilution effect is higher, making the concentrations of the minerals low making the water more suitable for human

consumption. Moreover, water from the borehole located in a low recharge and high abstraction area showed a higher WQI since the dilution factor was low, leading to the high concentration of minerals making the water unsuitable for human consumption. This clearly explains the effect of recharge and abstraction on WQI and agrees well with the developed multiple regression model.



**Fig. 11 Graph of Groundwater levels and WQI**

WQI showed a strong correlation with groundwater levels with an  $R^2$  of 0.77, as shown in Fig. 11. This means that as groundwater levels increased, the WQI increased, implying that water quality deteriorated. The increase in groundwater levels is caused by reduced recharge. An increased abstraction rate makes the water more concentrated because of the low dilution of the minerals present in groundwater resulting in increased WQI and vice versa.

**IV. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

It was concluded that abstraction and recharge rates affect water quality in NAS as water quality improved (WQI decreased) with a decrease in abstraction and an increase in recharge and deteriorated (WQI increased) with an increase in abstraction and reduced recharge, making the water unsuitable for human consumption. Therefore, it was

recommended that abstraction be regulated in line with recharge rates and recharge be improved to maintain high water quality suitable for human consumption. These findings are important to water resources managers and regulators as they can act as a management tool to control groundwater abstraction according to the available recharge and find alternatives for enhancing recharge.





## ACKNOWLEDGMENT

Our sincere appreciation goes to the research assistants who helped in sampling, borehole owners for allowing us to sample water from their boreholes, laboratory technicians for being supportive while analyzing the samples and Water Resources Authority office for providing us with historical data.

## REFERENCES

- [1] A. A., Saritha, B., & Ilayaraja. K.. An Assessment of Groundwater Quality and its parameters around Perungudi, the southern part of Chennai, India. *International Journal of Engineering Trends and Technology*, 3(3), (2012). 30–40.
- [2] Ambiga, K., & AnnaDurai, R. Development of Water Quality Index and Regression Model for Assessment of Groundwater Quality. *International Journal of Advanced Remote Sensing and GIS*, 4(1), (2015) 931–943. <https://doi.org/10.23953/cloud.ijarsg.88>
- [3] Bridget R. Scanlon, Robert C. Reedy, D. A. . S. tonestrom, & Dennehy, D. E. P. and K. F. Impact of land use and land cover change on groundwater recharge and quality in the southwestern US. (2005). 1577–1593. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2486.2005.01026.x>
- [4] Carlson, M. A., Lohse, K. A., Mcintosh, J. C., & Mclain, J. E. T. Impacts of urbanization on groundwater quality and recharge in a semi-arid alluvial basin. *Journal of Hydrology*, 409(1–2), (2011)196–211. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2011.08.020>
- [5] Foster, S., Bousquet, A., & Furey, S. Urban groundwater use in Tropical Africa - A key factor in enhancing water security? In *Water Policy* (20). 2018). <https://doi.org/10.2166/wp.2018.056>
- [6] Foster, S., & Tuinhof, A., THE ROLE OF GROUNDWATER IN THE WATER SUPPLY. (13) (2005) 1–6.
- [7] Gejl, R. N., Rygaard, M., Henriksen, H. J., Rasmussen, J., & Bjerg, P. L. Understanding the impacts of groundwater abstraction through long-term trends in water quality. *Water Research*, 156 (2019) 241–251. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.watres.2019.02.026>
- [8] Gowrisankar, G., Jagadeshan, G., & Elango, L. Managed aquifer recharge by a check dam to improve the quality of fluoride-rich groundwater: a case study from southern India. (2017) 1–13. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10661-017-5910-x>
- [9] Hejazian, M., Gurdak, J. J., Swarzenski, P., Odigie, K. O., & Storlazzi, C. D. (2017). Applied Geochemistry Land-use change and managed aquifer recharge effects on the hydrogeochemistry of two contrasting atoll island aquifers, the Roi-Namur Island Republic of the Marshall Islands. *Applied Geochemistry*, 80, (2017)58–71. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apgeochem.2017.03.006>
- [10] Hersi, A. L. I. M. . Hydrogeochemistry of Groundwater in Nairobi Area. By : a Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment for the Degree of Master of Science ( Geology ) At the Science University of Nairobi October (2003)1.
- [11] Idowu, T. E., Nyadawa, M., & K'Orowe, M. O.. Hydrogeochemical assessment of a coastal aquifer using statistical and geospatial techniques: a case study of Mombasa North Coast, Kenya. *Environmental Earth Sciences*, 76(12) (2017)1–18. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12665-017-6738-y>
- [12] Jia, Z., Bian, J., & Wang, Y. Impacts of urban land use on the spatial distribution of groundwater pollution, Harbin City, Northeast China. *Journal of Contaminant Hydrology*, 215 (2018) 29–38. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jconhyd.2018.06.005>
- [13] Kumar, S., Ghosh, N. C., Singh, R. P., Singh, R., & Singh, S. Impact of Canal Recharge on Groundwater Quality of Kolayat Area, District Bikaner, India. (2016) 341–347. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-18663-4>
- [14] Li, P. Groundwater Quality in Western China : Challenges and Paths Forward for Groundwater Quality Research in Western China. *Exposure and Health*, 8(3) (2016) 305–310. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12403-016-0210-1>
- [15] Masoud, M. H. Z., Basahi, J. M., & Rajmohan, N. An integrated approach is the impact of flash flood recharge on groundwater quality and its suitability in the Wadi Baysh Basin, Western Saudi Arabia (2018). <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12665-018-7578-0>
- [16] Mumma, A., Lane, M., Kairu, E., Tuinhof, A., & Hirji, R. Kenya Groundwater Governance case study. *Water Papers*, World Bank, Washington, DC. (2011).
- [17] Muraguri, P. M. Assessment of Groundwater Quality in Nairobi County, Kenya. (2013).
- [18] Mwamati, F., Kitheka, J., & Gikuma-Njuru, P. An Assessment of the Spatial and Temporal variations of Groundwater quality in Yatta Plateau in Kitui County, Kenya. 7(1)(2017) 90–104.
- [19] Ochungo, E., Ouma, G., Obiero, J., & Odero, N. Water Quality Index for Assessment of Potability of Groundwater Resource in Langata Sub County, Nairobi-Kenya. *American Journal of Water Resources*, 7(2) (2019). 62–75. <https://doi.org/10.12691/ajwr-7-2-4>
- [20] Oiro, S. Impact of climate change and human activities on groundwater resources in Kenya: Current knowledge and initial findings in Nairobi aquifer system and Tiwi/South Coast aquifer, a strategic aquifer under high pressure(2018).
- [21] Onyancha, C., & Getenga, Z. Geochemistry of Groundwater in the Volcanic Rocks of Nairobi City. *Global Journal of Science Frontier Research Environment and Earth Science*, 13(3) (2013).
- [22] Park, N., Santisteban, J. I., Santos, P. M., & Mediavilla, R. Long-term effects of aquifer overdraft and recovery on groundwater quality in a Ramsar wetland: Las Tablas de Daimiel. (April) (2018) 2863–2873. <https://doi.org/10.1002/hyp.13225>
- [23] Pophare, A. M., Lamsoge, B. R., Katpatal, Y. B., & Nawale, V. P. Impact of over-exploitation on groundwater quality: A case study from WR-2 watershed, India. *Journal of Earth System Science*, 123(7) (2014) 1541–1566. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12040-014-0478-0>
- [24] Raicy, M. C., & Elango, L.. Percolation pond with recharge shaft as a method of managed aquifer recharge for improving the groundwater quality in the saline coastal aquifer. *Journal of Earth System Science*, 0123456789(2020). <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12040-019-1333-0>
- [25] Shi, X., Jiang, S., Xu, H., Jiang, F., & He, Z. The effects of artificial recharge of groundwater on controlling land subsidence and its influence on groundwater quality and aquifer energy storage in Shanghai, China. *Environmental Earth Sciences*. (2016). <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12665-015-5019-x>
- [26] Uddin, M. G., Nash, S., & Olbert, A. I. A review of water quality index models and their use for assessing surface water quality. *Ecological Indicators*, 122 (2020)(2021). 107218. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolind.2020.107218>
- [27] Water Resources Authority. . *Water Resources Situation Report*. (2018).
- [28] Water Resources Authority. *Water Resources Situation report*. (2020).
- [29] Wekesa, G. Characterization of the Aquifer Suite within Nairobi County and its Environs concerning the Chemical A Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for Award of the Degree of Master of Science in Geology of the University of Nair. (2018).